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AUTHOR Schmuck, Richard A.
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ABSTRACT

When school psychologists adopt an organization development perspective they are acting on a cluster of related concepts: (1) that because schools are social organizations, school effectiveness depends on the school's organizational culture; (2) that attempts to institute educational reforms only work when the reforms and the school culture mesh; (3) that students' emotional and social problems in school may be based in the school's organizational culture; and (4) that it is possible to change the culture and thus improve the climate for learning and organizational success. The process of organization development is a planned, sustained effort that involves school participants in the active assessment, diagnosis, and transformation of their own organization. This paper, developed as a chapter for a handbook on school psychology, helps school psychologists understand the value of the concepts and techniques of organization development. The paper describes the basic concepts of organization development, delineates its theory, summarizes the generic stages of its consultation processes, discusses its current technology, analyzes the school psychologist's role in implementing it, and reviews the research on organization development in schools. The paper ends with an overview of contemporary concepts and practices. (PGD)

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Richard A. Schmuck
Educational Policy and Management and
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ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT IN SCHOOLS: CONTEMPORARY CONCEPTS AND PRACTICES *

Richard A. Schmuck
Educational Policy and Management and
Educational Psychology
University of Oregon

Schools are social organizations. Without interdependent and collaborative relationships among people, they are nothing but wood, concrete, and paper. Many of the difficulties experienced by staffs, during periods of change, may be traced to the nature of the organizational culture of the school. Thus, most deliberate efforts at school improvement affect not only the principal and the faculty, but also the relationships between them and their collective relationships with the students and parents. Unfortunately, school staffs are notoriously weak in their capabilities for productive collaboration. It is for these reasons that school psychologists have begun to add the theory and technology of organization development to their repertoires.

BASIC CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Organization development is a planned and sustained effort at school self-study and improvement, focusing explicitly on change in both formal and informal norms, structures, and procedures, using behavioral science concepts and experiential learning. It involves the school participants themselves in the

* This chapter is similar in outline to its predecessor in the first edition of this Handbook, but differs in content, particularly in offering new concepts about the role of the school psychologist in OD. Much more detail about the topics discussed can be found in R. Schmuck and P. Runkel, The Handbook of Organization Development in Schools, Third Edition, Palo Alto, CA.: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1985.

active assessment, diagnosis, and transformation of their own organization.

ASSUMPTIONS OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Organization development assumes that many efforts at educational reform have collapsed or have been absorbed without effect, precisely because of the limited attention given to the organizational context in which the reforms have been attempted. The assumption follows that innovation in curriculum or instructional techniques requires alterations in the school's behavioral and programmatic regularities, or to put it in another way, educational innovations require changes in the "culture" of the school.

VALUES OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

The most basic value of organization development is that of joining and working together collaboratively with educators, students, and parents create democratic social structures, and humanized interpersonal relationships. Attendant values include expanding all participants' consciousnesses about how others think and feel, as well as finding more and more choices for new action. Very important are (1) the valuing of I-thou interactions and authenticity in interpersonal relations, (2) a collaborative conception of freedom and control and emphasis on participation with interpersonal respect, and (3) the valuing of internal commitment.

GOALS OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Organization development is a conceptual framework and a strategy to help schools meet the challenges of a pluralistic

society. It encompasses a theory and a technology to help schools become self-renewing and self-correcting human systems. Organization development enables the school to monitor and respond to its environment, and to find, maintain, and use the human resources, ideas, and energy needed to respond to that environment. The tenacity of a school's culture lies in the power of norms, how well they are adhered to, and how resistant they are to change. Norms are shared expectations, usually implicit, that help guide the psychological dynamics and the group behaviors of members.

HISTORICAL SOURCES OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Organization development has been used widely in industrial and governmental settings since the mid-1950s. In the late 1950s, a major development occurred when the Esso Company launched a large-scale program which involved training in problem-solving for intact teams of superiors and subordinates to help them to be more trusting, collaborative, and productive in their work. The Esso Company also tried "intergroup" labs, during this period, for clarifying and managing conflicts between departments and between management and labor. From then on, organization development in industry grew leaps and bounds, in particular coming into its own during the past decade. It is estimated that about 500 industrial organizations worldwide now have substantial programs of organization development.

While organization development in schools has been strongly influenced by the earlier developments in industry, numerous modifications of industrial methods have been made to suit the

special characteristics of the educational setting. In particular, three social psychological conditions set schools off from most industrial organizations: (1) the nature of educational goals, (2) the amount and types of structural differentiation in schools, and (3) the school's unique vulnerability to short and long-run pressures.

EDUCATIONAL GOALS

In contrast to industrial organizations, the goals of schools are special in at least three ways. First, educators exert a great deal of effort toward ends that are seldom concretely defined. Second, there is an immense diversity of goals for public education and a steadily increasing number. Third, the explicit and agreed on citizenship goals of the public schools take considerable time--usually 12 years or more--to become actualized in the behavior of students.

STRUCTURAL DIFFERENTIATION

A second organizational characteristic that distinguishes schools from industries is the amount and type of role differentiation that exists in each. Jobs in public schools tend to be much less differentiated than in many industrial organizations in which organization development has flourished. Particularly noticeable are the absence of middle-level managers, and of status levels within the paraprofessional or support staff. Little formal opportunity is available for staff members to work together because each has a definite set of professional tasks to perform in isolation.

SOCIAL PRESSURES

Unlike many industrial organizations, schools are typically less vulnerable to competition, but more vulnerable to short-run pressures in the community. Although public schools are not required to compete against one another to maintain viability, the effects of many of their day-to-day procedures are readily visible to parents.

These unique features of schools --features that in many ways run counter to the assumptions, values, and goals of organization development--were at least partly responsible for the slowness with which organization development has caught on in schools. It was not until the 1960s that the first systematic effort to carry out and conduct research on organization development in school districts was launched by Miles (1963). His three-year project entailed collaboration with two school districts, near New York and Pittsburgh, respectively. Since that historic project, organization development in schools has grown, at first slowly but recently very quickly. At this time, organization development has grown to the point and established sufficient credibility and legitimacy to make it an important part of the school psychologist's repertoire.

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT AND OTHER STRATEGIES OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Organization development focuses primarily on the <u>how</u> of interpersonal and group interactions rather than on the <u>what</u> of their content. Success of organization development as a school improvement strategy would be measured by how effectively the

recipients work together in reaching their respective objectives. The success of organization development would be determined by how effectively the recipients define their problems and goals, how resourceful the recipients are in devising ways to reach their goals, and how stable, adaptive, and effective the group's products are over time. Organization development may be more fully understood by relating it to three fundamental strategies being employed today for school improvement: (1) consultative assistance, (2) content consultation, and (3) process consultation.

CONSULTATIVE ASSISTANCE

This strategy employs consultants to fill a particular educational need--as, for instance, when an expert is hired to design a new testing or reading program, or when a specialist is hired part time to teach a course. Consultative assistance can help the school fill a temporary gap or get over a contemporary hurdle, but typically it does not change the skill levels of other educators within the school, nor does it intentionally affect the interpersonal relationships among staff members or between staff and students.

CONTENT CONSULTATION

This strategy aims to educate the professional in substance in order that they will perform more capably. Deliberate attempts are made to raise the professionals' cognitive understanding, feelings of ownership, and commitment to change. The most typical mechanism of content consultation is the inservice course or workshop in which an expert trains educators

in a substantive area such as reading, mathematics, social studies, or the arts.

Although the potential for significant organizational change is present, the content consultant does not focus directly on systemic improvement. Instead, content consultation emphasizes bringing about such individual changes as new cognitions, attitudes, and skills, and thus typically does not directly facilitate cultural and structural change in the school organization.

PROCESS CONSULTATION

This strategy aims to improve the procedures that are used to reach educational objectives. It deals with such phenomena as interpersonal communication, leadership attempts, underlying tensions, and decision-making procedures. Process consultation does not deal directly with the subject matter of the interactions. Organization development is a special kind of process consultation (Schein, 1969).

Perhaps the most important feature of organization development, distinguishing it from other kinds of process consultation, is its emphasis on the social system, rather than the individual, as the target of change. System may refer to either an entire organization or a subsystem, such as an academic department or team of teachers. The emphasis of organization development is on improving both the ability of a system to cope and the relationships of the system with its subsystems and its environment.

THE ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVE

When looking at the school through the lens of an organization-development perspective, the school psychologist considers a student's emotional problems, at least in part, as arising from the student's position in the school culture. Assigning a student to the psychologist often implies that the student is not adjusting to the school culture and that the student should make appropriate changes in behavior. In other words, a traditional psychologist's orientation is to help the deviant student to adjust to the school as it now exists. In contrast, the organization-development perspective teaches that personal, emotional problems are influenced by interpersonal environments and that the interpersonal relations of the staff can represent particularly potent social environments for students. The school psychologist with organization development in mind queries, "What are the deficiencies in the interpersonal and group dynamics of the staff?" before he or she asks, "What is psychologically wrong with the student?"

Instead of intervening primarily on a one-to-one basis, the school psychologist with an organization-development perspective works with most members of the faculty, or at least with key subsystems of the school such as academic departments, classroom groups, or the student government. The energy that school psychologists use on a few students is converted into working with groups of students and staff.

THEORY OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT IN SCHOOL

Organization development is based on human-systems theory. It posits that acting on the educational system as a target for improvement offers a promising, indirect strategy for ameliorating the mental health and academic learning problems of individual students.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL SYSTEMS

In attempting to understand human nature, psychologists typically have focused on the interrelationships among perceptions, cognitions, affect, motives, and actions of individuals. Their mental health interventions may, for example, aim at increasing veridicality of perceptions, organizing cognitive processes, clarifying affective states, integrating the cognitive with the affective, offering cognitive maps for satisfying motives and achieving self esteem, and enhancing cognitive control over actions.

NORMS, STRUCTURES, AND PROCEDURES

Compared to this psychological emphasis, the targets of social system interventions to enhance organization development require the analytic tools of the social psychologist. Groups and organizations are constituted of norms, structures, and procedures, a cluster of human events that do not simply grow out of the psychology of the individual actors.

Since norms are shared expectations about how a system member ought to think, feel, and behave toward a particular issue, the dynamics of sharedness must be assessed. Norms can not be measured by summing the individual attitudes of the

participants in a social system, as one might attempt by polling each individual separately and by adding the responses. Assessing sharedness would require noting that two or more persons believe that the others hold expectations similar to theirs and that they expect one another to behave according to the content of those expectations. Thus, norms are constituted of implicit or explicit interpersonal exchanges between two or more system participants, with neophytes being socialized into the norms through listening, observing, modeling, venturing, and receiving feedback.

Structures entail visible networks of interdependencies, sequences of interaction, and behavioral exchanges that constitute a larger social reality than any individual participant brings to them. Structures may be more easily and directly assessed than norms because the latter so frequently are implicit or preconscious. System structures are physical and vivid; they can be assessed through observations of person-to-person interactions, group formations, routings of memos and correspondence, the paths of telephone calls and the like. Even so, assessing system structures often is difficult, both because of the complex logistics required in monitoring the structures of complex bureaucracies and because of the not-so-obvious informal structures involving influence, friendship, and social support.

Procedures refer to the organization's formal activities for accomplishing tasks and for maintaining itself. They are analogous to the behavioral patterns of individuals, but have an existence based on law or tradition that is larger in time and

scope than the unique ways in which individuals act in the organization. Meetings are called in a particular way and run according to some agreed-on patterns, records are kept in standard forms, travel vouchers must go through a number of steps to be bona fide, new members go through routines, job evaluations are carried out in certain fashions, etc. Procedures are carried out through system structures and often are guided by strong norms.

FORMAL AND INFORMAL ASPECTS

In the viable social system, the subsystems are articulated and interrelated to accomplish the organization's primary tasks and to satisfy human needs sufficiently to keep the organization on course. The norms, structures, and procedures of the subsystems support the task focus by insuring predictability, efficiency, and coordination of teachers, students, and administrators. But the formal organization of the school tells only part of the story.

In schools there inevitably arise conflicts between the instructional focus and the desires of the teachers, students, and administrators. Such divergent pulls reflect the rational and emotional sides of human nature. Rationality is highlighted by the norms, structures, and procedures of the subsystems, but the emotional aspects of human behavior frequently are deemphasized, even discouraged, by the school's curriculum and instructional arrangements. In the classroom, for example, the press for competition, getting the curriculum done on time, and performing learning tasks according to the teacher's standards

can frustrate students' needs for friendship, autonomy, and creativity. Or, altering teachers' assignments to cut costs frequently frustrates their expectations and the informal routines they have established with colleagues. As a consequence, informal structures, which offer legitimate avenues for emotional expression, develop and exist along side of and within the formal subsystems. Moreover, informal structures take on norms and procedures of their own that frequently can oppose the smooth functioning of the formal subsystems.

THE STRATEGY OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Organization development aims to establish norms, structures, and procedures that both facilitate an effective articulation of subsystems and arrange healthy overlap between the formal and informal aspects of the school. It deals with those objectives by focusing on organizational problem solving, subsystem effectiveness, and by striving to help individuals become self-actualizing participants within the school.

ORGANIZATIONAL PROBLEM SOLVING

A healthy school goes beyond sheer survival to cope adequately over the long haul and to develop and extend its surviving and coping abilities. The "bottom line," of course, is the school's ability to educate successfully a continuously changing student body. Organizational problem solving means the faculty's remaining open to information about students from both the environment and inside the organization, examining new instructional ideas, becoming aware of innovations in curriculum, and attempting to predict changes to come, both in the youth

culture and in the area of school curriculum. This is no small order.

A healthy school uses many resources, both external and internal, to aid in solving problems and in being responsive to new demands. Buckley (1967) referred to an organization's repertoire of usable resources as its variety pool. A variety pool includes individuals' information, energy, and skills; and also norms, structures, and procedures in support of systematic and collaborative problem solving. Although many schools possess a rich variety pool, the healthy school makes use of much of the resourcefulness it has because it has established appropriate norms, structures, and procedures.

SUBSYSTEM EFFECTIVENESS

Schools engaging effectively in organization problem solving have effectively functioning subsystems. Subsystem effectiveness may be determined in two ways: first by assessing healthiness of the subsystem's norms, structures, and procedures, and second by diagnosing the sorts of articulation, interdependence, and conflict management procedures connecting each subsystem with every other.

Effectively functioning subsystems integrate the formal and informal lives of the participants in the service of both goal achievement and social-emotional maintenance. The effectiveness of subsystems can be assessed by checking on goal and role clarity, communication accuracy and clarity, efficient agenda setting and meeting procedures, resource identification and use, decision-making involvement and clarity, cohesiveness and morale,

and the presence of evaluative feedback procedures up and down hierarchical levels. A diagnosis of system effectiveness much be concerned with the dovetailing of the formal and informal aspects of group life.

INDIVIDUALS A SELF-ACTUALIZING PARTICIPANTS

Empirical associations exist among satisfaction with organizational life, fulfillment of human motives, and the maintenance of self-esteem and self-respect. In attempting to understand the nature of the links, social-psychological thinking describes a central motive as striving for self-actualization, and that striving typically takes place in at least three motivational domains: (1) the striving for achievement, also referred to as competency, efficacy, and curiosity; (2) the striving for affiliation, affection, and support; and (3) the striving for power and influence. Typical emotions resulting from frustrating those motives are feelings of inferiority and incompetence, of being put down, ignored, or losing control, and of rejection, loneliness, and distrust.

Teachers, students, and administrators will be more likely to remain motivated, have available more paths to further satisfaction, and likely to become more productive if their achievement, power, and affiliation motives can be satisfied in school life. While collaborating and interacting with interdependent others in a variety of school settings can affect the satisfaction of these three motives and one's self esteem, we look primarily to the classrooms to find achievement satisfactions, to peer and collegial relationships for

affiliative satisfactions, and to hierarchical relationships both within the school and between the school and the district office for power satisfaction.

THE TARGETS FOR CHANGE

The perspective of organization development commences by conceiving of schools not as clusters of individuals working at separate tasks, but as interdependent subsystems working at particular tasks and moving into coordination with one another as they move from task to task. A starting point for school improvement calls for a focus on how skillfully teachers, administrators, and student interact with one another.

INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

The interpersonal skills of processing information, conceiving problems, and taking collective action are the fundamental ingredients of effective organizational problem solving in schools. Collaborative problem solving requires the gathering of diagnostic information, sharing and clarifying it, agreeing on the selection of a specific problem, conceiving and analyzing the problem, and having the ability to respond with experimental trials.

Giving relevant information about one's role and tasks and eliciting task-related information from others constitute the two sides of processing information. They offer the paths by which staff members can create the common reality needed for collaborative action and experimental change. However, when feelings run high, as they frequently do in schools when anxiety or disagreement surface, teachers and administrators tend to

close off channels of communication that are ordinarily open when things are going smoothly. In such circumstances, those who withhold information about their skills, ideas, preferences, and other resources may deprive others of useful information and the potential means of solving problems.

Conceiving problems entails the search for available information about what is known of the present situation and the goals that are valued or preferred. In particular, it requires specifying a discrepancy between current aspects of a situation and an ideal state, and referring to that gap as the problem. Locating such gaps, acknowledging them, and accepting them as challenges requires time, energy, creativity, and discipline. Above all, successful problem solving requires norms that support taking risks in uncovering problems heretofore unknown or ignored. While there is no certain way for all participants at all times to think of the steps of problem solving, a school staff will be stronger to the extent that it has norms, structures, and procedures that are supportive of continuous, collaborative problem solving.

SUBSYSTEM NORMS AND ROLES

The process of subsystems may be conceived as the complex interplay of norms and roles. Norms when collected into a gestalt constitute the subsystem's culture, while an interrelated set of roles make up the subsystem's structure. Along with a focus on interpersonal skills, organization development looks to modifications in the school's culture and its structure for enhancing problem solving and effective change.

The social-psychological character of norms are relevant to organization development in several ways. First they help to coordinate the school's structure by causing behavior to be guided by common expectations, attitudes, and understandings. Second, norms can facilitate both the school's viability and the individual staff member's sense of well-being. Third, norms can promote a clear division of labor by helping to specify the appropriate behaviors for each task. Finally, for the staff member, norms provide a basis for social reality, especially when objective reality is ambiguous, as it so often is for administrators and teachers.

Furthermore, although norms may act to resist school change, they can be gradually modified to facilitate changes in tasks, roles, and classroom procedures. They can be altered when staff members conjointly and simultaneously experiment with innovative ways of doing things, and sustain those new actions long enough until enough members come to believe that their colleagues will accept and continue on with the new patterns of role behavior. Such sustained, conjoint action is particularly important when the norms to be changed are integrally associated with the competencies or skills of individuals. Many interpersonal patterns of a school can be modified if staff members make explicit formal agreements conjointly (and this is always a significant point for organization development), but many patterns of interaction characterized by strong ego involvement may require time-consuming, one-to-one agreements reached through private discussions. However agreements for new norms and roles

are reached, they must be supported by other staff members and legitimized through formal, staff agreements.

SCHOOL CAPACITY FOR PROBLEM SOLVING

Four clusters of interdependent, formal activities characterize a school's capacity for problem solving. When functioning in a healthy fashion, these activities are legitimized and guided by appropriate norms, accomplished as a formal aspect of the structure, and acted out through regular procedures.

First is the systematic diagnosis of discrepancies between actual and ideal states that exist within the school's environment, between its subsystems, within the subsystems, and between particular staff members. Second is the proactive retrieval of appropriate resources from inside and outside the school to reduce the discrepancies specified during the diagnosis. Third is the rapid formation of ad hoc groups, frequently with members from several subsystems, that can efficiently and effectively use available resources to reduce the diagnosed discrepancies. Fourth is the self-analytic, formative evaluation of the above three clusters of activities.

STAGES OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Consultation in organization development aims to upgrade interpersonal skills, to clarify and refurbish subsystem norms and roles, and to develop an effective, organizational capacity for solving problems. It aims further to upgrade the quality of life in a school by establishing norms, structures, and

procedures that will help staff members satisfy their achievement, power, and affiliation strivings. It works to arrive at those objectives through a systematic, sequential process involving six stages.

START-UP AND CONTRACT BUILDING

If organization development is to be built on a solid base of participant support, it is crucial to gain at least a publicly delivered, oral commitment from the key staff members that will be participating. To this end, the critical importance of establishing relaxed rapport, credibility, trust, and legitimacy at the outset, and of arriving at clear statements about goals, competencies, and shared expectations cannot be overemphasized. Organization-development consultants must be explicit about their role, the targets of change (as spelled out above), the project's budget, and the time they are expecting to devote to the project. The first is very important since the school psychologist will have to be explicit about how taking the role of an organization-development consultant differs from the typical functions of the school psychologist. Also, the last is of supreme importance since organizational change requires time, often one or two years in many schools.

DIAGNOSING PRESENT FUNCTIONING

The consultants need some reliable scientific data on which to base their designing and they must also communicate to staff members of the target school that particular data on this specific school will be necessary for designing a tailored consultation. While collecting appropriate data on communication

adequacy, goal agreement, conflicts, meeting skills, problem solving, and the like, consultants can communicate the focus of organization development, and at the same time train staff members in what activities will follow.

DESIGNING THE INTERVENTION

Designs for implementing organization development can be divided into macroaspects and microaspects. A macrodesign comprises the overall structure and outline, sequence of parts, and general forms through which activities flow. An example would be a sequence in which interpersonal skills are upgraded, norms in support of collaborative goal setting are strengthened, and structures for improved organizational problem solving are established. Microaspects of a design refer to the specific activities played out during any limited period of consultation. These could include specific skill-development activities, group exercises, and innovative organizational procedures. The most frequently used microaspect is a systematic problem-solving sequence since it fits into most macrodesigns.

EXECUTING AND ASSESSING THE DESIGN

As already indicated, the designs of organization development are tailored to fit the diagnostic data depicting the characteristics of the target group. The consultant assesses a design by scrutinizing the plan and trying to anticipate what could go wrong before it does go wrong. This may be done by asking how the macrodesign grows out of the diagnosis and how it furthers the goals of the target staff. Also, the consultant might invite two or three colleagues to examine and criticize the

plan for possible weaknesses and, for purposes of comparison, to devise alternative plans that they think might work as well or better. Then, as each component of the microdesign is actually carried out, consultants are alert to any unwanted side effects during the play of the component and in the first moments afterward. If the activity is relatively ineffective, compared with what was expected, the consultants would redesign the macrodesign.

Organizational change is sequential and usually requires reeducating staff members if the school is to move toward a heightened capacity for problem solving. Especially during a period of active intervention by the consultant and active change by the staff, it is vital for the consultant to make frequent formal or informal checks on progress to ascertain whether staff members are actually using new skills and procedures, following through on problem-solving steps, changing structures, and monitoring their own commitments.

TERMINATION OF THE PROJECT

Dependency is inevitably established between the consultant and members of the target staff. Thus, the consultants must prepare staff members for their withdrawal by giving repeated advance notice of their date of leaving. The macrodesign must move toward increasingly greater client control and the consultant giving participants ample practice in taking over the functions of organization development before he or she leaves.

If the organization-development effort is to be self-sustaining, the school should have developed new structures and

procedures to accommodate continual problem solving. Cognitive and affective change should have occurred; norms, roles, influence patterns, and communication networks should have become more receptive and responsive--indeed, the culture of the school should have become different.

INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

By the institutionalization of organization development we mean that the target school has established norms, structures, and procedures in support of continuous problem solving. Moreover, the staff members would realize that occasional consultation will continue to be necessary from year to year to maintain the new structures and procedures, and they should know where to find other helpful organization-development consultants. For a school, perhaps the most powerful support for organization development is a cadre of district-wide consultants.

TECHNOLOGY OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT IN SCHOOLS

The activities of a typical organization-development project make primary use of experiential learning. Learning by doing is emphasized over listening to lectures. It is intended to help staff members translate what is learned into the real-life work of the school.

Because organization development makes use of experiential learning in the group setting, some people sometimes confuse it with sensitivity training. But the latter usually brings together people who do not know one another to focus on individual learning and to help each participant become more

aware of self. In contrast, the technology of organization development works chiefly through intact, task groups, and the major foci are on group effectiveness and organizational problem solving.

CONTACTS, INTRODUCTIONS, AND DEMONSTRATIONS

Although any staff member of a prospective target school may contact the school psychologist to ask for help in organization development, the introductory discussions should formally be carried out between the school's administrators and the consultant. While the principal, assistant principals, and department heads are usually the ones to meet with first, it must be remembered that gaining approval and collaboration of the managers alone will not necessarily win commitment from other staff members. Indeed, the implication of collusion between the consultant and the administrators can lead to the project's rapid demise. Remember that organization development works for school improvement through the instructional subsystems and that introductory, contract-building sessions should eventually be carried out with all key staff members.

While discussions of the characteristics of social systems, the strategy of organization development, the targets for change, consultative designs, and intervention techniques characterize the initial discussions, sound consultant-client relationships are not forged by agreement about consultative activities alone. The school psychologist should remain aware that the dynamics of start-up and contract building often arouse intense feelings of suspicion and distrust, defensiveness and dissatisfaction,

investment and caution, and vulnerability and reserve. Even though improvements in the school's capability to do problem solving is the overriding target, individual staff members themselves will undergo changes with their own thoughts and feelings. Directly discussing staff member's thoughts and feelings about change in empathic ways can be a prime requisite for valid contract building and a successful design.

Frequently, a demonstration of how organization development works serves as a useful event as a prelude to contract building. A thorough demonstration requires two days, but one can be carried out in as little as two hours. The participating staff members are told that the demonstration is being offered to help them determine whether they would like to become involved in organization development.

Demonstration goals include (1) developing staff members' interest in the benefits of organization development, (2) presenting a picture of a self-renewing, problem-solving school, (3) helping staff members see how to confront current problems, (4) helping them understand the unique functions of organization development in contrast to those of management consultation or sensitivity training, (5) presenting a picture of the skills that might be gained through organization development, and (6) establishing the beginning of a collaborative relationship between "clients" and consultants.

Early in the demonstration the consultants present definitions, theory, an overview of technology, the stages, and the notion of organizational capacity for problem solving. Next,

the demonstration proceeds to episodes that entail more active participation of staff members. Every remaining microaspect begins with experiential activity and is followed by debriefing with the help of client or consultant observer. Staff members are then asked to comment on the similarities and differences between the activity and their actual school experience. Finally, the consultant points out relevancies to the real school, presents concepts so that staff members can apply them to their school, and makes available more detailed readings.

DIAGNOSTIC TECHNIQUES

Diagnosis should occur with even the most sophisticated faculty. Indeed, pessimistic comments by faculty members are important data in themselves. Special care should be taken with cautious or cynical faculty members to assess the amount of resistance to or readiness for organization development. The school psychologist should strive to discover the kinds of workshop events that occurred within the school before, the kinds of organizational problems that were worked on, and, why, from the staff members' point of view, previous change efforts were aborted. Problems that are attacked as part of the organization-development effort, such as ineffective meeting procedures, should take into account the frustrations or successes of previous problem-solving attempts.

The diagnosis should make use of multiple methods, of which self-report questionnaires, interview schedules, and systems for observation are the most typical. In addition to these formal methods, organizational memos and letters, informal conversations

with staff members, and even observations made during casual visits with clients offer important information. Collecting formal data can strengthen staff members' views of the validity and legitimacy of the organization-development effort.

DESIGN METHODS

Four types of macrodesigns may be distinguished--training, data feedback, confrontation, and process observation and feedback--each calls for special sorts of skills on the part of the school psychologist. For staff members in the schools, it often is easier to classify these several types of interventions simply into just two, training and consultation, and then to contrast the highly structured pedagogical formats of training with the more immediately pragmatic features of data feedback, confrontation, and process observation and feedback.

In training, the consultant determines the learning goals for a scheduled time period, initiates structure, and directs activities. Training involves highly planned teaching and experience-based learning in structured formats that usually include lecturettes and assigned readings. It is similar to traditional classroom teaching except that in organization development the key members of a subsystem or of an entire school experience the training simultaneously with one another.

Training activities are made up of skills, exercises, and procedures. Skills denote ways in which interactions can be executed within a group. An exercise, or simulation, is a structured, gamelike activity designed to make prominent certain types of group processes that participants can easily

conceptualize because they are related to their personal experience. Unlike exercises, whose content is determined by the consultant, procedures are content free and are used to make work more effective toward whatever goal has been chosen.

Data feedback, the systematic collecting of information that is reported back to key members of appropriate subsystems as a basis for diagnosis and subsequent action planning, is one of the most important intervention modes of organization development. At least three aspects of a data feedback strategy constitute the keys to its success. First, the consultant must be adept at collecting valid, relevant data and at putting the data into feedback formats that will be understandable and motivating to the participants. Second, the consultant must strive to elevate mundane data to a level of larger significance so that they are worthy of notice by the participants. Third, the consultant must find ways of incorporating data feedback into the ebb and flow of larger consultative designs and should look for opportunities to transfer the task of data collection and feedback from the change project to the formal organization of the school itself.

In confrontation design, the consultant brings two or more bodies together to interact and to share the perceptions that each has of the other, to pinpoint areas where each is viewed as helpful or unhelpful to the other, to establish clear communication channels between the two groups, to introduce a problem-solving procedure that may facilitate collaborative inquiry into mutual problems, and finally to specify the common concerns of all parties in the confrontation.

In executing process observation and feedback, the purpose of which is to help group members become more aware of how they are working together, the consultant sits with the client group during its work sessions, observes the ongoing processes, and occasionally offers personal comments or observations.

Training, data feedback, confrontation, and process observation and feedback each in a different way set the stage for collaborative problem solving, plan making, and experimental trials.

INTERVENTION PROCESS

The consultant in organization development assumes that by making opportunities for staff members to learn interpersonal skills and to use them in improving subsystem effectiveness, any school can set in motion a change through which collaboration and subgroup problem solving can establish the school's capacity in solving its own problems. The following domains for intervention are those on which the consultant focuses:

1. Clarifying Communication: Clarity of communication is essential to school effectiveness. By developing more precision in the transmission and reception of information, ambiguity and conflict about norms and roles can be alleviated and interpersonal trust can be built, which can, in turn, reinforce a climate of openness and authenticity.

2. Establishing Clear Goals: Sharpening goal definitions can lead to exploring the differentiation and integration of effort needed to achieve them. Recognizing the pluralism of goals within the subsystem, organization, and environment can be a

vital step toward acceptance of differences and greater ownership of common goals.

3. Uncovering and Working with Conflict: Confronting conflict can help to clarify the norms and roles that will aid the organization in accomplishing its tasks. Norms for collaboration can replace norms for avoiding conflict. Individualized roles can satisfy diverse motivational patterns and capitalize on diverse abilities and value systems as well.

4. Improving Group Procedures in Meetings: The face-to-face group meetings in which most organizational activity occurs in schools need not be frustrating or unproductive. Procedures aimed at facilitating task productivity and group maintenance can make such meetings more satisfying.

5. Solving Problems: A school's adaptability implies continual engagement in problem-solving cycles for pinpointing, analyzing and acting on goals that are not being reached. Since both the current situation and a preferred target are in flux, problem solving must be continual.

6. Making Decisions: Effective subsystems, like adaptable organizations, must be capable of moving decisions into action, which can be done effectively only when staff members clearly understand a decision and are committed to it. Although it is not necessary for some to have less influence for others to have more, it is sometimes helpful to reduce authority if it is not based on knowledge and competence.

ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION STRATEGIES

Change for its own sake does not necessarily lead to an improved school with a heightened capacity to solve problems. School staffs must develop criteria for evaluating progress toward meeting short-range and long-range goals.

Diagnosing the conditions surrounding an organization-development project, assessing the project's design as it unfolds, and monitoring progress need not be highly technical or time consuming. The underlying strategy is reasonably simple, and the methods employed--interviewing, questionnaires, direct observation, poring over documents, and others--need not be sophisticated, provided consultants obtain enough information to guide the change in self-conscious, systematic ways.

Two strategies of evaluation should be applied to an organization-development effort: formative and summative. When school people gather information to take timely action that will maximize the quality of a particular program, this information is labeled, formative. It helps to <u>form</u> the project, and its audience consists of those carrying out the project and their consultants. When someone gathers information to make a value judgment about the worth of a program, that information is called summative. It makes a <u>summation</u> of the project's value and is of use to many audiences concerned with setting policies and making decisions about programs.

In organization development, formative evaluation entails assessing the design and monitoring progress as the intervention proceeds. Careful consultants build their designs to match their

diagnoses so that they can accurately predict the immediate effects of their design components as well as the cumulative effects of the sequenced components. At the same time, they invite colleagues to criticize their designs or to give them "dry runs," ceaselessly check as each component is carried through, and check immediately at its conclusion to be sure that the effect is close to that designed.

Monitoring progress means diagnosing the current functioning of the school and comparing that condition with plans for next steps. Consultants monitor progress to determine whether short-term and long-term goals are being met and whether the intervention is producing the knowledge, sensitivities, skills, and norms on which further advances can be built.

Summative evaluation involves evaluating outcomes. Here the strategy attempts to judge whether the intervention produced overall results to justify time and expense, whether the products or effects were superior to the old ways of doing things, and whether the intervention had produced any unexpected or undesirable side effects.

THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST AND ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

In thinking about acting as an OD consultant, school psychologists should consider four roles: (1) action researcher, (2) staff developer, (3) social architect, and (4) political strategist.

ACTION RESEARCHER

The school psychologist as action researcher, not unlike the formative evaluator, helps collect objective data--in the form of questionnaires, interviews, and observations--and then sees that the data are analyzed, discussed, and used for action planning. The school psychologist helps participants specify and clarify their shared problems, think of alternative actions to solve the problems, use data in monitoring their success in implementing chosen actions, and use data to evaluate the outcomes of their actions.

STAFF DEVELOPER

The school psychologist as staff developer seeks to help educators change the norms, structures, and procedures that are keeping the school from being effective. That can be accomplished by taking the role of an organizational trainer who directly teaches participants communication skills, goal-setting procedures, meetings skills, conflict resolution methods, problem-solving skills, and the like. As organizational trainer, the school psychologist determines the learning goals of the participants for a particular time period and organizes and directs the training activities.

SOCIAL ARCHITECT

The school psychologist as social architect seeks to build cooperation and collaboration among participants by discussing ideas about organizational improvement with key individuals outside of formal meetings, by sounding out the group consensus, by pinpointing individuals who agree or disagree with various

points of view, and by checking to see what the readiness is of the faculty for new ways of working together. One technique that the social architect might use, that of quality circles, is discussed below.

POLITICAL STRATEGIST

The school psychologist as political strategist strives to build coalitions with key people, both inside and outside the school, to achieve a more effective school organization. That can be accomplished by taking on the roles of mediator, facilitator, and intergroup communicator. At times, it is appropriate for the political strategist to act as a third-party, neutral consultant to individuals and groups in conflict.

Using those four roles as conceptual starting points for acting as an OD consultant, school psychologists should consider three locations for focusing their efforts: (1) administrators, (2) staff groups, and (3) classroom groups.

ADMINISTRATORS

For school psychologists to be successful as OD consultants, they must gain the attention and the respect of the principals and the superintendent's cabinet. In assuming the role of OD consultant to administrators, school psychologists can conceptualize the possibilities by thinking about themselves as action researchers, staff developers, social architects, and political strategists. As action researcher, for example, the school psychologist might encourage principals to solicit feedback about their leadership roles as one way of modeling openness to change and of facilitating collaborative problem

solving among teachers. The school psychologist could help principals create a questionnaire for teachers. It might include questions such as: (1) If I were to do the following things more or better, it would help you to increase your effectiveness, and (2) If I were to do the following things less or were to stop doing them, it would help you to increase your effectiveness, and (3) The following things that I have been doing help to increase your effectiveness as a member of this school, and you hope I will continue to do them.

After data are collected, the school psychologist helps the principals analyze them and design appropriate responses to their staffs. Once the school psychologist has helped principals achieve credibility for being self-critical and open to change, there are many other ways in which action-research techniques might be useful, e.g., the Delphi process for goal setting, staff meetings questionnaires, or surveys for getting at school climate and instructional effectiveness.

As staff developer, the school psychologist might help administrators see the importance of their participating with teachers in inservice workshops, of their setting up teacher committees to specify staff needs for professional development, and of their arranging training sessions for their staffs.

As social architect, the school psychologist might help administrators articulate organizational tasks on which improvement is needed, go to individual teachers and subgroups to enlist interest in the tasks, listen carefully to the teachers' concerns about those tasks, and design formal faculty subgroups

to work on the tasks. The school psychologist might also help administrators run more efficient and effective formal meetings. That means coaching them in building a clear agenda prior to the meeting, having someone act as a convener, seeing that all who speak are listened to, having the key decisions recorded, and having them follow-up the meeting to see that agreed-upon actions are implemented.

As political strategist, the school psychologist might help administrators initiate tactical messages with influential people both within and outside of the school. For example, principals could be coached to watch for informal coalitions on their staffs and to work with them on behalf of everyone's goals, whereas members of the superintendent's cabinet could be helped to design and manage more effective public relations by being reminded that the students and teachers are the most important public-relations agents in the community.

STAFF GROUPS

Staff groups--in the form of full faculty meetings, committees, task forces, departmental meetings, and teaching teams--frequently have difficulty in working efficiently and effectively. The school psychologist, as an OD consultant, can improve the quality of life of such groups. As action researcher, the school psychologist might observe meetings, collect questionnaire data, and lead the group in problem-solving about how it might improve. As staff developer, the school psychologist might offer workshops on running effective meetings. As social architect, the school psychologist might talk with

group members informally about how the group is functioning to increase the members' readiness for data feedback and training, and as political strategist, the school psychologist might persuade the superintendent's cabinet or even the school board to initiate their own participation in training on effective meetings as a model for the principals to emulate in their own schools.

CLASSROOM GROUPS

Another way that the school psychologist can help to improve the school's climate is to serve as an OD consultant to classroom groups. In this sort of consultation, the client is the entire learning group, not just the teacher, and the target is to improve the climate of the group. By employing such action-research techniques as observations, interviews, questionnaires, and data feedback, the school psychologist can enhance problem-solving in the class. Or by offering workshops and training sessions as a staff developer, the school psychologist can use simulations, serious games, and role-playing to enhance the social skills of the students. Or by talking with several teachers informally, the school psychologist as a social architect could facilitate a collaborative effort between two classrooms in cross-age tutoring. Finally, by meeting with the leadership of the teachers' association, the school psychologist, as political strategist, might legitimize teachers using outside consultants to improve their classroom practices.

INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Although changes in the role of the school psychologist can help bring organization development to many subsystems of a school district, it is unlikely in itself to influence the climate and problem-solving capabilities of the entire district. For a school district to achieve a renewing state and sustain a favorable impact on its participants, continuing attention must be given both to the interpersonal and group skills of district employees and to the district's group and organizational procedures. To achieve that requires the maintenance of training and consultation permanently by institutionalizing organization development through new norms, roles, and organizational structures.

Toward that end, our Center on OD in schools at Oregon initiated and tested a design for establishing internal organizational specialists in school districts. That strategy calls for training district members to perform OD consulting part-time for school staffs and other district work groups. Cadre members are drawn from various roles and subsystems within the district to constitute a microcosm of the district. They do not consult with their own family groups and their role as organizational specialists is separated from their other functions.

Since cadre members are not full time, they bring to the consultative effort the skills and their place in the communication network that are parts of their regular jobs. Such collegial or peer consultation is structured through horizontal

interactions among "organizational cousins," i.e., those who hold jobs within the same school district but who are not members of the same interdependent task unit. In contrast to placing normative emphasis on expertise, typical of most school consultation, peer cadres for organization development become legitimized by norms that support collegial responsibility and helpfulness.

The Oregon center has established peer cadres of organizational specialists within twelve school districts. Although the work of those cadres differs a good deal one from the other, the overall sequence of most organization-development projects include an initial period of start-up and contract building, followed by diagnosis and design. Then a series of sequential consultative sessions are interspersed with data collections for formative evaluation. A typical consultation lasts from a few months to a whole academic year. Evaluative data serve as springboards for redesign and more consultative sessions until the cadre and the clients believe that the necessary structures and procedures for self-renewal have been built into the client group. Finally, data often are collected for purposes of summative evaluation and offered to policy makers.

The peer cadres emphasize building strong temporary teams for delivering the consultation. By understanding and supporting one another, the organizational specialists can more validly diagnose the organizational problems of their clients and design more effective interventions. Moreover cadre members who feel

comfortable working together learn from one another during the team planning and consultations. While specialists in the cadres occasionally work alone, their solo tasks have been listed and planned by a team. It is fairly typical, for example, for individual specialists to focus on particular functions such as designing interviews, training large groups, serving as process facilitators, or coaching individual clients. All team members share in providing one another with helpful feedback and in carrying out continual evaluation as the interventions move along. A cadre coordinator, typically a half-time position, plus representatives from each intervention team, form a steering committee to manage the overall cadre effort.

School psychologists can make a major contribution to institutionalizing organization development by redefining their role in the district to include membership in a cadre of organizational specialists.

RESEARCH ON ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT IN SCHOOLS

Much of the theory and research reported in this chapter emerged from fifteen years of collaboration among more than 150 people working in a program of research, development, and dissemination on OD in schools at the University of Oregon. From 1967 to 1982, that program produced data, theory, practices, and techniques from work with over two thousand educators in more than fifty elementary and secondary schools. The results were summarized in the first edition of this Handbook and have been recently brought up to date in Schmuck and Runkel (1985).

Separate from the Oregon program, Miles, Fullan and Taylor (1978) produced a comprehensive assessment of the state of knowledge of educational OD and the nature and extent of its use in school districts in the United States and Canada. While the entire report is much too large to summarize here, it is useful to present some of the results on consultants and programs. Perhaps the most striking finding was that a great deal more organization development was discovered to be going on in school districts than the authors expected. For example, they located 308 consultants who have been doing extensive organization development with schools in the United States and Canada between 1973 and 1978. That number is approximately double those that were located in 1971 by Schmuck and Miles (1971). Moreover, they amassed a sample of 76 school districts where organization development had gone on for at least 18 months. And surprisingly more than 50% of the consultants involved in those projects were insiders with little or no formal training in organization development, and little or no linkage to experts in organization development.

Furthermore the study indicated that about half the districts with organization development had district-level coordinators, a steering group for school improvement, and released time available to support the effort. Their results also indicated that the impact of organization development was most frequently reported to be associated with the implementation of instructional innovations, such as team teaching, individualization, and alternative schools. Many districts

reported some negative effects, such as resistance or increased work load, but most of those annoyances did not result in terminating the organization-development project. Most programs did, on the whole, generate favorable attitudes toward organization development. Indeed, two-thirds of the districts thought that organization development should "definitely" be used more widely in the schools, and the majority had attended workshops and conferences in which they told others how organization development had helped their district. About a third of the districts had visited other districts to explain their work, had sent out reports, or had written articles. In other words, the users of organization development tend to proselytize. Finally, three-quarters of the districts predicted that organization development would become institutionalized functions in their district.

Miles, Fullan, and Taylor's (1978) case studies tended to confirm many findings of their questionnaires from districts, particularly the support required from top management to get organization development initiated, the need for a task emphasis, the importance of sustained consultation from participants inside the district, and the low money, but high time costs that are involved. Other important themes also emerged. (1) Careful, early planning of an internal steering committee is important to future success. (2) Organization-development efforts are probably easier to launch when the school environment is <u>not</u> turbulent. (3) Success is accompanied by a close partnership between consultants inside the district and experts in

organization development outside the district. (4) The idea that organization development is not a special, add-on, but a core, way-of-life in the district. (5) The probability that true institutionalization will take up to five years for a moderately large school district.

Research since Miles, Fullan, and Taylor on OD in schools has been influenced by the effective schools movement. An important source of information on OD and effective schools in the urban environment is the April, 1979 edition of Theory Into Practice. Along with contributions from the Oregon Program, taken from experiences in Oakland and New York, there are other significant contributions. The most notable are Bassin, Gross, and Jordan working on self-renewal teams in New York high schools, Milstein of the University of New Mexico developing a cadre of organizational specialists to deal with desegregation of Buffalo schools, Keys of the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle testing OD successfully in Catholic urban schools, and Scheinfeld of the Institute of Juvenile Research testing ways of integrating OD with parent involvement and improved classroom instruction in Chicago elementary schools.

Aside from that issue of Theory Into Practice, other sources of program and researchers with experience in research on organization development in schools can be found in the annotated bibliography put together in 1975 for the updated, second printing of Schmuck and Miles (1971), the Review of Reviews by Miles, Fullan, and Taylor (1978), the annotated bibliography on humanistic education by Schmuck and Schmuck (1976), an annotated

bibliography on organizational change in schools by Runkel and Harris (1983), and the most extensive, up-to-date, annotated bibliography on OD in schools by Cooley (1986).

CONTEMPORARY CONCEPTS AND PRACTICES

The prospects for organization development theory and techniques to contribute to school improvement have never been stronger. Nowadays, most educators are concerned about healthy interpersonal and group processes. Teachers increasingly see the importance of supportive human relations and social support in their classes, while administrators increasingly understand the relevance of clear communication and positive school climate for staff effectiveness in instruction. It is my belief that we will begin to observe the following trends taking hold and coming to fruition during the next decade:

INFUSING OD INTO EDUCATOR FUNCTIONS

The concepts and techniques of OD will soon become integral to the functioning of most educators. As such, organization development will not just be implemented by change agents in temporary and expert roles. Ideas and activities about clear communication, shared goals, constructive conflict, effective meetings, joint problem solving, and collaborative decision making will become part and parcel of educators' roles. While it's likely that many educators will not use the words, organization development, to label what they are thinking and doing, they will be trying to act as effective organization developers nonetheless.

DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN MANAGING AND LEADING

A prominent theme in contemporary thought about effective school administration is that it takes both good leadership and good management to run a school well. Leadership entails influencing teachers to act toward values that are shared by all professional educators, while management entails seeing that institutional procedures are carried out efficiently and effectively. The concepts and techniques of OD can facilitate both good leadership and good management.

Organization development teaches that educational leaders must bring vision, excitement, energy, involvement, and a sense of pulling together to the staff. At the same time, OD teaches that managers must run the organization smoothly, seeing that laws, administrative rules, and ethics are followed, and that daily routines are executed to satisfy both institutional norms and human needs. OD techniques can help administrators act both as competent leaders and as efficient managers.

DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN EFFECTIVE AND GOOD SCHOOLS

Another important theme in current writing is a focus on effective and good schools. Effective-schools research has shown that certain organizational conditions in the school are correlated with the academic achievement of its students. Those organizational conditions have to do broadly with school climate. When the teachers share high expectations for student performance, agree on master plans for homework, grading, and discipline, share a common vision of the centrality of academic

performance, and show consistent psychological support for their students, then the academic achievement of the students is high. The converse is also true; with little climate support in the school, students do poorly in academic achievement.

The effective schools stress on academic achievement as the schools' raison d'etre has lead to discussions about good schools. Good schools are characterized, too, as having supportive climates, but less emphasis is placed on traditional achievement outcomes and more attention is given to student self-esteem and creativity, teacher-student playfulness and spontaneity, and humane, empathic, and respectful interpersonal relationships. Good schools' advocates wonder if a strong and narrow focus on academic achievement won't be dysfunctional for the development of moral character, civic responsibility, and mental health.

The concepts and techniques of OD can help resolve differences between effective and good schools. OD can help schools establish faculty agreements about how teachers will behave toward one another and about how they will relate to the students. The resulting product of OD can be a supportive climate for learning. But OD can also help staffs pinpoint school goals other than academic achievement and through the techniques of survey data feedback and confrontation, it can help maintain contact with the many yearnings and concerns of the students. The humane values of OD can help make effective schools good, while the data feedback and problem solving techniques of OD can help make good schools more effective.

INTEGRATING OD WITH SOCIAL ISSUES

Desegregation for both student bodies and faculties, an issue facing large numbers of schools, can be aided by attention to organization development and the introduction of third-party facilitators. Mainstreaming is another contemporary issue that can be enhanced by organization development. Scheinfeld (1979), for example, has shown how to use the concepts and techniques of organization development to bring teachers, administrators, and parents into joint problem solving and decision making. And, the many projects that require school steering committees, parent advisory groups, and PTA committees can benefit significantly from the team-building strategies of organization development.

Perhaps the most pervasive contemporary issue facing public education for which organization development may make a significant contribution is that of bringing staff and students together for school improvement. The time when students--particularly secondary school students--adopted primarily a quiet and passive stance toward professionals is mostly in the past. There are several indications that times are changing for students. The growing number of alternative schools is evidence that students want to make choices about the sort of education they experience. Moreover, faculty-student conflict in some urban schools has led to increased power of students in the organizational functioning of the school. Still, the effort among organization-development practitioners to bring staff and students together to co-manage the secondary school is minuscule,

and the knowledge and skill needed to do that is mostly lacking from educators' repertoires.

Three intervention strategies may be tried to help students increase their understandings of how the school organization works and to become skillful as "co-managers" of the school.

1. Changing Classroom Norms: The most common designs entail training the teacher and students simultaneously in the cognitive and behavioral aspects of interpersonal communication, steps and procedures for group problem solving, goal-setting methods, and in the procedures of process debriefing about the classroom group.
2. Amending Curricula: Arends, Schmuck, Wiseman, Milleman, and Arends (1981) have developed a series of experiential activities, readings, and group assignments to help secondary students understand how the school organization works through the study of organizational psychology. The students collect, analyze, and use data about their own school, attempting to make positive contributions to school improvements.
3. Improving Student Governance: Medina (1978) has developed and field tested a 30-hour design to train members of student councils to examine their own group behavior, to develop more effective interpersonal communication skills, and to consider new ways of conducting meetings in which collaborative problem solving and decision making occur. Because of the cultural complexities of the many adult and student subsystems of schools, efforts at planned change for desegregation, main-

streaming, parent involvement, or student involvement are much larger in scope than the typical organization-development consultations that have been carried out in schools. And such school improvement efforts will no doubt call for further development of conflict resolution techniques, those which have received the smallest amount of attention in the past from consultants of organization development in schools.

CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Interest in how to deal with conflicts in schools is increasing. OD consultants typically organize their tactics for resolving conflict into three steps: (1) distinguishing between miscommunication and conflict, (2) assessing the seriousness of the conflict, and (3) responding appropriately to the source of the conflict.

Miscommunications are not conflicts; they are gaps between intended messages and received messages. They occur when messages sent do not directly reflect intentions, or when messages received are inaccurately understood. Miscommunications can be reduced by improved articulation and listening. OD consultants use the skills of paraphrasing and summarizing to enhance listening. When miscommunication might escalate into conflict, they seek face-to-face meetings with the parties involved. If clarifying the communication accentuates differences between the parties, the OD consultant assumes there is conflict and proceeds to assess it.

OD consultants often classify the main sources of conflicts in schools as: (1) power struggles between persons and groups, (2) role conflicts, and (3) differentiation of functions among parts of the school. They try to assess the source of the conflict, and then respond accordingly. For example, with power struggles, the consultant talks separately with the conflicting parties about their perceptions of the conflict. Often just bringing an unconscious power struggle into the open with conversation can reduce its intensity and disruption. If, however, the struggle does not subside, the consultant recommends that a third party with authority be introduced to help resolve the conflict. That neutral party could, of course, be the consultant or it could be a key administrator or a committee of trusted school participants who represent a legitimate advisory group; e.g., the department heads, an administrative cabinet, or a committee of teachers. Once the conflict has surfaced and the consultant has made a tentative assessment of its source, the consultant helps the participants seek ways in which they might become engaged in cooperative work toward ends they have in common.

When role conflict is the source, and the above procedures don't seem appropriate, the OD consultant asks each party to write three lists addressed to every other party in the conflict as follows: to help me carry out my role, I'd like you to do the following more or better _____; to help me..., I'd like you to do the following less often _____; and..., I'd like you to continue doing the following as you now are _____.

The consultant gives the responses to the parties, encouraging each to question others for clarification, but not to argue about the information. After the messages are understood, the consultant asks the parties to choose issues to negotiate, with each prepared to offer a temporary behavior change. The negotiation takes the form of an exchange: If I do _____, you will do _____. After the parties are satisfied that each will receive a return for what they are to give, the consultant records the agreement and moves to another issue.

When differentiation of function is the source, and the above tactics do not work, the consultant asks each conflicting party to write descriptions, both favorable and unfavorable, of itself and of the other party. The consultant next convenes the parties to share their images with one another. Then, the consultant separates the parties again, and asks each to recall instances when its behavior supported the impressions of the other party. In other words, the OD consultant asks each party to confess that it did, at one time or another, behave in ways that might have exacerbated the conflict. The last stage is for the consultant to reconvene the parties to share the confessions, and to specify the underlying issues that are pulling them apart. Although such a procedure will not resolve all differences, it can set the stage for collaborative problem solving.

QUALITY CIRCLES

One contemporary procedure for resolving school-wide conflicts through collaborative problem solving is the quality circle. In school districts, quality circles are face-to-face

discussion groups of from six to twelve staff members of the same school or the same central-office division. Such groups are formed voluntarily, meet regularly (once a week or once every two weeks), pinpoint problems that are keeping the school from being as effective as it might be, and make use of a procedures, such as the S-T-P problem-solving method, to come up with tentative action ideas to resolve the problems.

In the S-T-P method, the S stands for the situation as it exists now, the T stands for the target toward which the group wishes to move, and the P stands for the plan needed to move from the current S to the ideal T. The situation is analyzed through group discussion by enumerating the facilitating forces that are positive aspects of the situation vis-a-vis the target, and by enumerating the restraining forces that keep the situation from moving in the direction of the target. Once such a "force-field analysis" is prepared, the group brainstorms actions to reduce the restraining forces and to enhance the facilitating forces. The brainstormed ideas are then collected by the group into a larger action plan for changing the nature of the situation. The details of who will do what and when are constructed by the group and agreements are made about when to commence the actions. Finally, the quality circle reports its plan to the school's decision-making body for action.

NETWORKS FOR OD IN SCHOOLS

A few years ago, a new center on organization development in schools was formed at the University of Oregon under the sponsorship of the University Council for Educational

Administration. The objectives of that center are to further training, research, development, and dissemination of OD in schools. The center stores and disseminates a collection of annotated bibliographies, sets up conferences, seminars, and workshops, and maintains networks of researchers, practitioners, and school districts involved with OD.

The researchers, practitioners, and representatives of the school districts convene for a conference once a year at the University of Oregon. Conference proceedings have focused on OD in the classroom, OD and racism, ageism, and sexism, OD for middle schools, OD and effective schools, OD and teacher supervision, and the like. For information about the Oregon OD in Schools Center and the Oregon annual OD conference, write to the author.

SUMMARY

Organization development is a planned and sustained effort at school self-study and improvement. The focus is on the school as a social system and human culture. The process involves the school participants themselves in the active assessment, diagnosis, and transformation of their own organization. This chapter aims to help school psychologists understand why the concepts and techniques of organization development are important for their repertoires. It describes the basic concepts of organization development, delineates the theory that undergirds it, summarizes the generic stages of consultation in organization development, specifies much of its current technology, describes various roles that the school psychologist might take to

implement organization development, and summarizes research on OD in schools. The chapter ends with an overview of contemporary concepts and practices. The school psychologist as an OD consultant strives to create more emotionally supportive climates in schools and districts.

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